

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect

journal homepage: <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/aob>

Effect of the secretory leucocyte proteinase inhibitor (SLPI) on *Candida albicans* biological processes: A therapeutic alternative?

José Alexandre da Rocha Curvelo^a, Anna Léa Silva Barreto^a,
Maristela Barbosa Portela^b, Daniela Sales Alviano^a, Carla Holandino^c,
Thaís Souto-Padrón^a, Rosângela Maria de Araújo Soares^{a,*}

^aInstituto de Microbiologia Paulo de Góes, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

^bFaculdade de Odontologia, Universidade Federal Fluminense, Niterói, Brazil

^cFaculdade de Farmácia, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Accepted 5 May 2014

Keywords:

Candida albicans

SLPI

Virulence factors

Protease inhibitor

ABSTRACT

Objectives: The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of SLPI on the growth and biological processes of *Candida albicans*.

Methods: Two *C. albicans* strains were used in this study, a clinical isolate resistant to fluconazole (PRI) and a reference strain ATCC 24433. The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined according to the CLSI methodology. The influence of SLPI on secreted serine proteinase activities (SSP) was measured by the cleavage of specific substrate, and surface hydrophobicity was determined by the aqueous-hydrocarbon biphasic separation method. Flow cytometry was performed to investigate receptors for SLPI and variations in the cell wall mannoprotein expression. Interaction between yeast and epithelium was assessed using the MA-104 cells lineage. Ultrastructure was analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM).

Results: MIC values were calculated as 18 and 18.9 μ M for the PRI and ATCC 24433, respectively. SSP activity was reduced by 48.8% by 18 μ M of SLPI and cell surface hydrophobicity increased by 11.1%. Flow cytometry suggest the existence of SLPI binding sites on the surface of the yeast. Results showed a reduction in the expression of mannoproteins in 20.8% by the cells treated with 80 μ M of SLPI, and 18 μ M reduced the adhesion of yeasts to mammalian cells in 60.1%. TEM revealed ultrastructural changes in cells treated with 80 μ M of SLPI, such as the presence of membrane-like structures within the cytoplasm.

Conclusions: SLPI exerts a significant influence on *C. albicans* viability and biological processes. Considering its constitutive and physiologic features, SLPI may become a promising tool for the development of new methodologies for the treatment and control of candidiasis.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

* Corresponding author. Present address: Instituto de Microbiologia Professor Paulo de Góes, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Av. Carlos Chagas Filho 373, bloco I, Ilha do Fundão, Rio de Janeiro, CEP 21941902, Brazil. Tel.: +55 21 25626711.

E-mail address: rasoares@micro.ufrj.br (Soares).

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2014.05.007>

0003-9969/© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Candidiasis is a major opportunistic fungal infection in humans and its incidence has increased steadily over the last two decades due to the increasing number of susceptible individuals, such as transplant patients and HIV + individuals,¹ as well as the population ageing and the extensive use of aggressive antimicrobial and chemotherapeutic agents.^{2–4} This situation is further aggravated due to the limited number of antifungal drugs commercially available, that does not allow an efficient control of the infection caused by this fungi.⁵ For many years, fungal infections were treated with polyene compounds (Nystatin and Amphotericin B), despite their high toxicity. In the early 90s, the development of first generation triazoles (fluconazole and itraconazole) changed the epidemiology of candidiasis by offering new options for prevention and treatment.⁶ However, the extensive use of these new antifungal agents has resulted in resistant strains, which now creates urgency for the development of new treatment strategies.^{7,8}

Human candidiasis infections can range from a mild disease to a severe systemic infection that can be fatal.⁹ Such variations occur, in large part, due to virulence factors that can determine the course of the infection. In candidiasis, these factors are responsible for the success of the colonization or infection in the host. *Candida albicans*, in particular, has developed an effective set of virulence attributes and specific strategies that can determine the course of infection.^{10,11} Although there are many virulence factors that have been attributed to *C. albicans*, hydrophobicity; adherence to the host tissues; morphological conversion to the filamentous form (dimorphism); recognition of surface molecules and enzymes production are considered the most important issues to date.^{12–14} Therefore, considering the role of extracellular enzymes in the pathogenesis of candidiasis, the therapeutic use of protease inhibitors could act to reduce the virulence of *C. albicans*.¹⁵

The secreted leucocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) is a cationic, non glycosylated protein, consisting of 107 amino acids with a low molecular weight (11.7 kDa),^{16–19} able to inhibit the activity of a large number of serine proteases.^{17,20,21} SLPI can be found in several mucosal secretions, such as saliva, milk and semen, in different concentrations, ranging from 2.0 μ M in saliva^{22–25} to 80 μ M in seminal fluid.²⁶ The therapeutic potential of SLPI was demonstrated “in vitro” when applied on induced epidermal lesions, which resulted in the reduction of the lesion size, the tissue repair time and inflammation.^{27,28} In addition, SLPI antimicrobial features have already been reported.^{29–32} Therefore, the enzymatic inhibitory features of this protein associated to its antifungal activity suggest its potential for the development of new therapeutic strategies against candidiasis. Considering this, this study aimed to evaluate the antifungal potential of SLPI on *C. albicans* biological processes, which may contribute to the development of new strategies for therapeutics and prophylaxis of candidiasis.

This study shows for the first time the ability of SLPI to modulate different virulence factors, such as: the proteolytic activity, hydrophobicity, adhesion to epithelium and

mannoprotein expression on *C. albicans*. These factors were particularly selected due to its essential role in the very early stages of the infections, providing the installation of the disease. In addition, the ultrastructural changes that this protein causes on the yeast were evaluated by TEM.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Strains and culture conditions

Despite the emerging shift in the aetiology of candidiasis, *C. albicans* remains the most prevalent species in mucosal infections,^{33–36} skin infections³⁷ and in nosocomial candidemia.³⁸ Thus, two strains of *C. albicans* were chosen to be evaluated in this work. One clinical strain resistant to fluconazole, which was isolated from the oral mucosal of an HIV(+) patient, namely PRI,^{39,40} that was used in all experiments, and the ATCC 24433 reference strain, which was used in the MIC and in the minimal fungicidal concentration (MFC) assays. Before any experimental procedures, both strains were subcultured into Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) broth and incubated at 37 °C for 48 h for the yeasts to reach the exponential growing phase.

2.2. Recombinant protein

Recombinant SLPI protein and anti-hSLPI antibody were purchased from R&D System® (Minneapolis, USA) and reconstituted in phosphate-buffered saline PBS 10 mM, pH 7.2 at 25 °C.

2.3. MIC and MFC

SLPI MIC was determined according to the M27-A2 methodology for microdilution. Serial protein dilutions were prepared in the range from 80 to 0.62 μ M, and fluconazole and nystatin were used as control. Microtitre plates were evaluated spectrophotometrically (600 nm), and the results were analyzed through the linear equation obtained by dispersion analysis in Microsoft Excel®. The minimum concentration able to inhibit yeast growth completely and 50% were defined as MIC and IC₅₀, respectively. MFC was calculated by subculturing 10 μ L of each well onto Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) medium in Petri dishes, and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The lowest protein concentration able to decrease yeast viability by 99.9% was considered to be MFC.

2.4. Proteolytic activity

The inhibitory function of SLPI towards the proteolytic activity of secreted serine proteinases from the *C. albicans* clinical strain was evaluated by the cleavage of the fluorogenic substrate Z-Phe-Arg-4-methoxy- β -naphthylamide (Sigma Aldrich®, St. Louis, USA). After a 48 h incubation in BHI medium, yeast cells were harvested by centrifugation for 8 min at 4 °C, the supernatant was filtered in a Millipore® (Billerica, MA, USA) membrane 0.22 μ m and concentrated by ultrafiltration with an exclusion membrane of 10 kDa, for 7 h at 4 °C resulting in a 30 \times concentrated solution.⁸ The

concentrated supernatant (20 μ L) was diluted in 50 μ L of a reaction buffer containing sodium acetate 0.1 M, pH 5.0 and 2.5 μ L of the fluorogenic substrate Z-Phe-Arg-4-methoxynaphthylamide and incubated at 37 °C for 1 h with different concentrations of SLPI (2.0 and 18 μ M) that were added during the hydrolysis process. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 150 μ L of trichloroacetic acid 5%. Substrate cleavage was fluorometrically read at wavelengths of 380 and 450 nm for fluorescence excitation and emission, respectively.⁴¹

2.5. Cell surface hydrophobicity (CSH)

CSH was determined by the aqueous-hydrocarbon biphasic hydrophobicity assay. Briefly, 1×10^7 cells were incubated in 80 μ M of SLPI (highest physiologic concentration) for 6 h at 37 °C, washed in cold deionized water and suspended in phosphate urea magnesium (PUM) buffer, pH 7.1, and optical density was adjusted to 0.400 at 600 nm. Yeast samples (1.2 mL) were added to 300 μ L of cyclohexane in borosilicate glass tubes and vigorously vortexed for 3 min. After decanting, the aqueous portion was measured at the same wavelength. The percentage difference between readings of the aqueous phases before and after cyclohexane addition was considered to be the hydrophobicity value of the cell population.⁴²

2.6. SLPI binding to *C. albicans* wall

Flow cytometry analysis was carried out in order to investigate ligands for SLPI on the surface of the *C. albicans* clinical strain. Briefly, 10^6 cells were washed in PBS 10 mM, pH 7.2, fixed in paraformaldehyde 4%, blocked with bovine serum albumin (BSA) 5%, and incubated with 2 (lowest physiological concentration) or 9 μ M of SLPI for 90 min at 25 °C. Cells were then washed and incubated with 10 mg/L of SLPI antibody (anti-SLPI Affinity Purified Goat IgG, R&D System® Minneapolis, USA) for 1 h, and incubated with secondary antibody anti goat IgG conjugated to fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) (Sigma Aldrich® St. Louis, USA), in a 1:1000 dilution. Yeast cells (10 000 events) were evaluated in a flow cytometer EPICS ELITE (Coulter Electronics, Hialeah, FL, USA) equipped with 15 mW argon laser at a wavelength of 488 nm, and results were analyzed using the WinMDI software version 2.8. Control cells (cells that were only washed and fixed) were used to determine autofluorescence.

2.7. Cell wall mannoprotein expression

In order to evaluate variations in the presence or expression of cell wall mannoproteins, flow cytometry analysis was carried out. Yeasts cells (1×10^7) were incubated with 9.0 (IC₅₀) and 80 μ M of SLPI for 6 h at 37 °C. After incubation, cells were washed in PBS 10 mM, pH 7.2, fixed in paraformaldehyde 4%, blocked with BSA 5%, and incubated with FITC labelled Concanavalin-A (Sigma Aldrich® St. Louis, USA), (2 mg/ml) in a 1:500 dilution. Yeasts were washed and 10 000 events were acquired for each analysis in an EPICS ELITE® flow cytometer (Coulter Electronics, Hialeah, FL, USA) equipped with a 15 mW argon laser at a wavelength of 488 nm.

2.8. Adhesion of *C. albicans* to epithelial cell

Epithelial cells from monkey kidneys (MA 104) were suspended in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% foetal calf serum (FCS), and 1×10^5 cells were placed onto glass coverslips in a 24 well culture plate which was incubated at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ humidified atmosphere for 24 h. Yeast cells were incubated with the mammal cells at a 10:1 ratio in DMEM with or without 18 μ M (MIC) of SLPI for 90 min at 37 °C. Un-adhered yeasts were removed by extensive washes with PBS 10 mM, 7.2 pH, and coverslips were fixed with Bouin, stained with Giemsa, dehydrated in acetone and xylol and then mounted on Permount® (Fisher Chemicals, Leicestershire, UK). The number of associated yeasts per 100 epithelial cells was estimated by counting under optical microscopy at a 1000× magnification with an Axioplan 2® microscope (Zeiss, Jena, Germany).¹²

2.9. Ultrastructure

To evaluate possible ultrastructural changes caused by SLPI, the yeasts were treated and analyzed by transmission electronic microscopy (TEM). The cells (1×10^7) were incubated with 9.0 and 80 μ M of SLPI for 6 h at 37 °C, washed in PBS 10 mM, pH 7.2 and fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in sodium cacodylate buffer 0.1 M, pH 7.2 for 1 h. Fixed samples were washed and post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in sodium cacodylate buffer 0.1 M, pH 7.2 containing 0.8% potassium ferrocyanide and 5 mM of CaCl₂. Dehydration was carried out by increasing concentrations of acetone, and samples were embedded in epoxy resin to make the blocks which were polymerized at 60 °C for 72 h. Blocks were cut on an ultramicrotome and sections were placed on copper grids and contrasted in saturated uranyl acetate and lead citrate solution. Images were finally analyzed in a transmission electron microscope EM 900® (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

2.10. Statistical analyses

Flow cytometry final results were considered to be the representation of four independent experiments. All others experiments were performed at least in triplicate and results were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. Data were analyzed by the Student's t-test paired, and *p* values lower than 0.05 were considered significant.

3. Results

3.1. MIC and MFC

The MIC data of the clinical isolate and ATCC strain of *C. albicans* are summarized in Table 1. The results show that SLPI was able to inhibit yeast growth in both strains in similar concentrations. Equivalence between molarity and weight/volume concentrations was registered as well, and MIC and IC₅₀ were equivalent to 18 and 18.9 and 9.9 and 9.4 μ M for the clinical isolate and ATCC 24433 strains, respectively. MFC for both strains were calculated as 20 μ M, suggesting primarily a fungicidal activity.

Table 1 – MIC and IC₅₀ of SLPI, fluconazole and nystatin assessed on *C. albicans* ATCC 24433 and clinical isolate, according to the CLSI M-27A2 protocol. Cell growth was measured spectrophotometrically (600 nm).

<i>C. albicans</i>	SLPI (μM)		Fluconazole (mg/L)		Nystatin (mg/L)	
	MIC	IC ₅₀	MIC	IC ₅₀	MIC	IC ₅₀
Clinical isolate	18 ± 2.6	9.9 ± 1.2	>128	>128	9.67 ± 0.5	4.06 ± 0.7
ATCC 24433	18.9 ± 0.5	9.4 ± 0.2	2.81 ± 2.7	1.51 ± 1.8	nt	nt
nt = not tested.						

3.2. Proteolytic activity

The proteolytic activity profile of secreted serine proteases released by the clinical isolate in the presence of different SLPI concentrations are summarized in Fig. 1. The figure shows that the minimal physiologic concentration (2.0 μM) and MIC (18 μM) of SLPI were able to inhibit the proteolytic activity of serine protease secreted by *C. albicans* in 37.1% and 48.4%, respectively.

3.3. Hydrophobicity

Cell surface hydrophobicity was determined by the aqueous-hydrocarbon biphasic partitioning assay and revealed that when the yeasts were incubated with the highest physiologic concentration (80 μM) of SLPI for 6 h at 37 °C, CSH reached 27.2%, whereas CSH was 16.1% in the incubation cells without SLPI, indicating an increase of 11.1% in the yeast CSH after SLPI treatment.

3.4. Surface receptors for SLPI

The histogram presented in Fig. 2 demonstrates that SLPI was able to recognize specific molecules on the surface of *C. albicans*. Fluorescence peaks moved to the right when yeast cells were treated with the lowest physiological concentration of SLPI 2 μM (Fig. 2A) and 9 μM of SLPI (Fig. 2B). However this latter incubation shows a greater peak displacement, com-

pared to the first one, pointing to a higher level of recognition. For confirmation, arbitrary fluorescent units (AFU) were measured, and they showed an increase in fluorescence emission of 21.1% and 70% when the yeasts were incubated with 2 and 9 μM of SLPI, respectively.

3.5. Cell wall mannoprotein expression

Flow cytometry analysis using concanavalin-A (con-A) as a probe for mannoproteins revealed that treatment with the IC₅₀ of SLPI (9.0 μM) did not alter the expression of receptors for the lectin on the surface of *C. albicans* (Fig. 3). However, when cells were incubated with the highest physiologic concentration (80 μM) of SLPI, the flow cytometry analysis revealed a decrease in the expression of mannoproteins on the cell wall of the yeast. Considering only AFUs, there was a decrease of 20.8% in the fluorescence emitted by yeast cells treated with 80 μM of SLPI, while no shrinkage was observed in the 9.0 μM incubation.

3.6. Adhesion of *C. albicans* to epithelial cells

The influence of 18 μM of SLPI on the interaction between the clinical strain and MA 104 is demonstrated in Fig. 4. SLPI was able to reduce the association index by 60.1%, as shown in Fig. 4(a). Representative images of the interaction process are shown in Fig. 4(b), where a clear distinction between the interaction patterns can be seen, strengthening the results of quantitative analysis.

3.7. Ultrastructure

Transmission electron microscopy revealed ultrastructural changes in cells treated with 9.0 (data not shown) and 80 μM of SLPI (Fig. 5). Treatment with 80 μM SLPI caused cell deflation and structural changes such as the presence of disorganized membrane structures within the cytoplasmic compartment.

4. Discussion

Growth inhibition can contribute substantially to control fungal infections, since the ability to limit the proliferation of rapidly growing fungi can decrease the onset of the disease in susceptible patients.⁴³ Fluconazole displays linear pharmacokinetics in dosages that can reach 50–800 mg/day, it has a high bioavailability, and low binding to circulating proteins, which provides an easy and quick access to patient's tissues.³ Cutoff points that determine the resistance or susceptibility of *C. albicans* to fluconazole are well established and MIC values

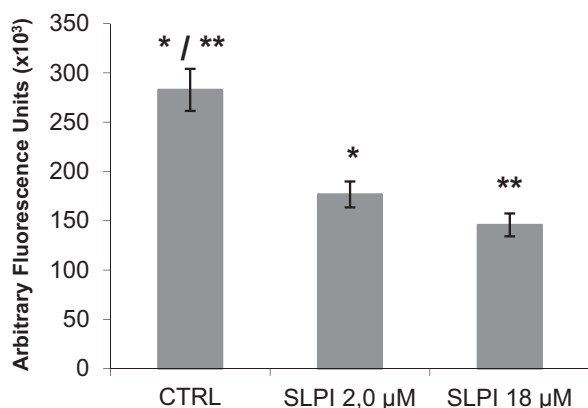


Fig. 1 – Effect of SLPI on proteolytic activity of serine proteases secreted by *C. albicans*. The concentrated supernatant was diluted with buffer containing the fluorogenic substrate in the absence (CTRL) or presence of 2.0 and 18 μM SLPI. The percentage difference between the fluorometric readings was considered the inhibition of proteolytic activity $p < 0.001$ (*); $p = 0.001$ ().**

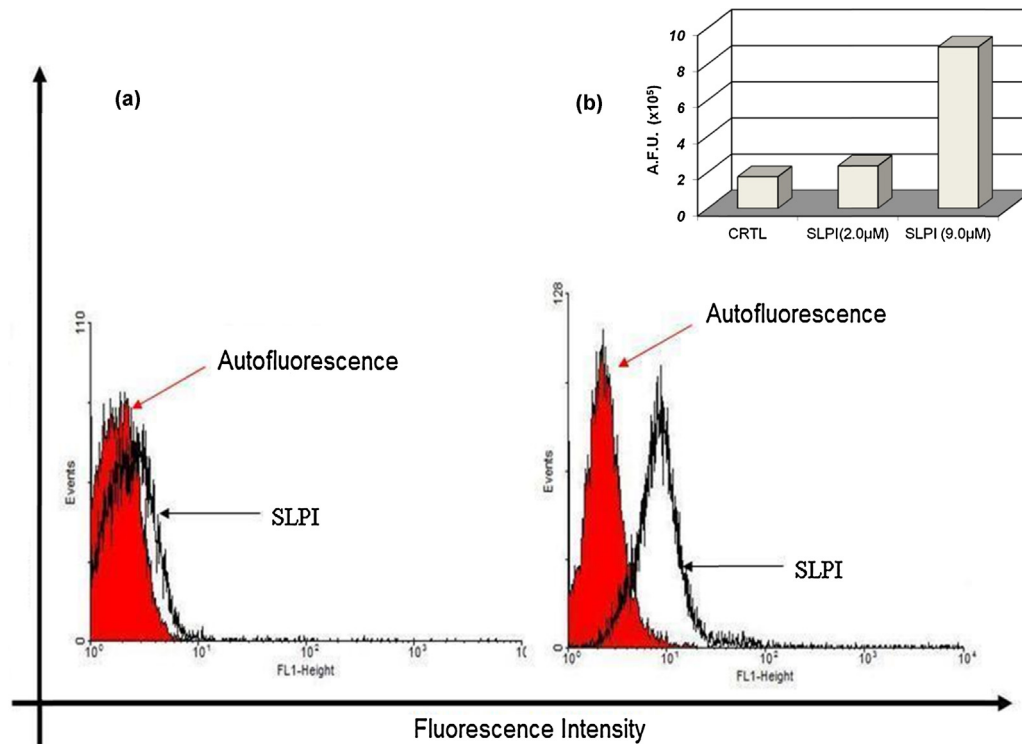


Fig. 2 – Analysis by flow cytometry showing binding of SLPI to the surface of *C. albicans*. Yeasts were incubated with 2.0 μM SLPI (a), or 9.0 μM of SLPI (b) for 90 min, followed by incubation with anti-hSLPI antibody and FITC-labelled secondary antibody (empty peaks). Autofluorescence was given by control cells that were not incubated with the protein and are represented by peaks filled in red. Arbitrary fluorescent units (AFU) were quantified and are represented by the figure inset.

above 64 μg/mL and below 8 μg/mL define a strain as resistant or susceptible to this drug, respectively.⁴⁴ In this study, the evaluation of MIC showed distinct fluconazole values for the two strains of *C. albicans*, as expected. However, SLPI values were similar for both strains suggesting that the resistance mechanisms to fluconazole from the PRI strain were unable to affect SLPI activity. In fact, an MFS efflux pump was recently identified in the PRI strain as the main cause of its fluconazole resistance.⁴⁰ Therefore, similar MIC values for both susceptible and PRI strain makes us believe that this efflux mechanism may be ineffective against SLPI activity. Anyway, resistance to antifungal drugs has particular importance considering the limited number of commercially available drugs.² Thus, any new therapy able to circumvent this situation must be considered relevant.

SLPI MIC values for both strains were higher than 17 μM, which remains within the range of physiological secretion.²⁶ Therefore, considering its constitutive features, it is likely that an exogenous administration of SLPI could fulfil its antifungal biological role without any adverse effects on the patient.⁴⁵ The administration of 17 mM of recombinant SLPI, by aspiration, on the bronchopulmonary epithelium of patients with cystic fibrosis reduced proteolytic activity and the expression of interleukin 8 (IL-8) providing a significant improvement in the inflammation.⁴⁶ The inhibitory values obtained in this study, although high, seem promising and reinforce the idea of using SLPI as a possible therapeutic alternative.

Regarding growth and viability; the results showed that MIC and MFC values were similar, pointing primarily to a fungicidal activity. Clinically, the selection criteria for antimicrobial drugs are universal, and postulate that whenever there is an option, the chosen drug must be microbicidal in the first place,⁴⁷ reinforcing the potential of SLPI as a therapeutic option in the future.

The secreted protease activities of *C. albicans* have been associated with the increase in the virulence of this organism; therefore, the therapeutic use of protease inhibitors has been suggested as a potential alternative for the control and management of candidiasis.¹¹ The superfamily of subtilisin-like serine are reportedly responsible for activating protein precursors in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *C. albicans*.⁴⁸ In these two genres, a similar proenzyme prototype is Kex2p, which is a cytoplasmic serine protease involved in the expression of some pivotal virulence factors in *C. albicans*, including morphological differentiation and the clearance of extracellular proteases, which are factors considered essential to a successful infection.^{12,49,50} In fact, this study demonstrated that the physiologic concentrations of SLPI were able to inhibit significantly the proteolytic activity of serine proteases secreted by *C. albicans*.

Adhesive interactions are considered the initial step that leads to the establishment of infections caused by any microorganism, including *Candida* spp.^{51,52} The presence of SLPI during the interaction process between epithelial cells and *C. albicans* reduced it by more than 60%. Epithelial invasion

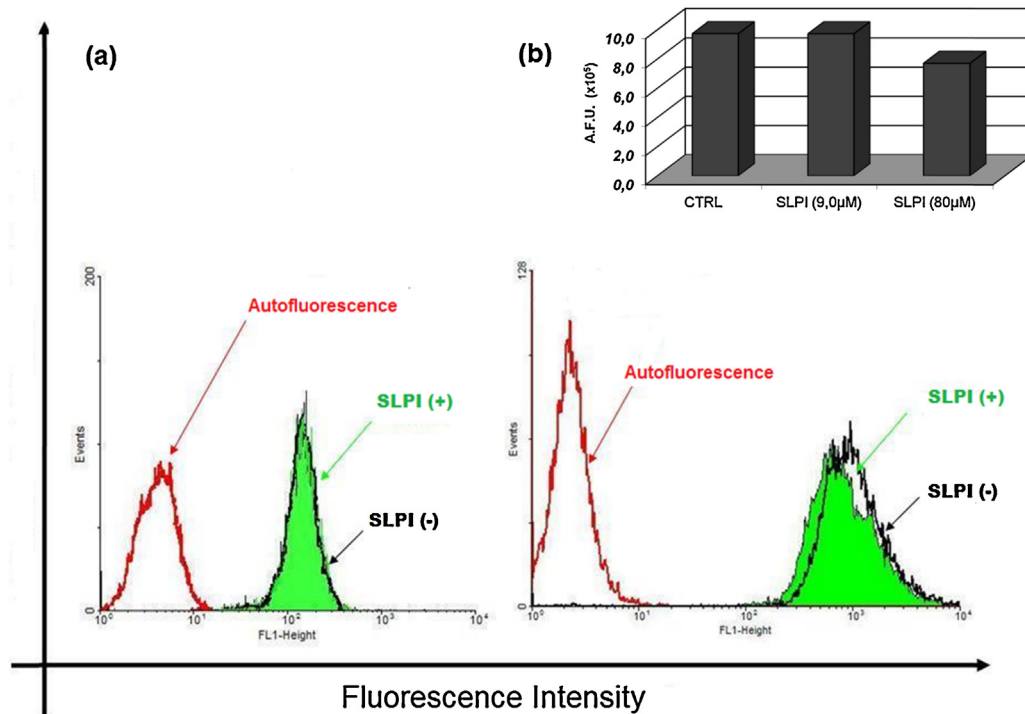


Fig. 3 – Histogram showing the binding of concanavalin A labelled with FITC to the surface of *C. albicans*, after treatment with 9.0 μ M (a) or 80 μ M (b) of SLPI for 6 h at 37 °C. Autofluorescence was given by not incubated nor labelled cells and is represented by red empty lines. Treated cells are represented by green filled peaks while untreated cells are expressed by solid empty black lines. Both treated and untreated cells were incubated with FITC labelled concanavalin A for 1 h and analyzed by flow cytometry. Arbitrary fluorescent units (AFU) were quantified, as well, and are represented by the figure inset.

by *C. albicans* is crucial to the pathogenesis of candidiasis and normally follows two different mechanisms: an active penetration, where *C. albicans* hyphae or germ tube elongates and pushes itself physically into the host cell,⁵³ and penetration

by endocytosis, where adhesins bind to epithelial cell receptors and activate proper endocytosis machinery.⁵⁴ In fact, the role of serine proteinases in the adhesion process is considered crucial, as its inhibition by classical inhibitors,

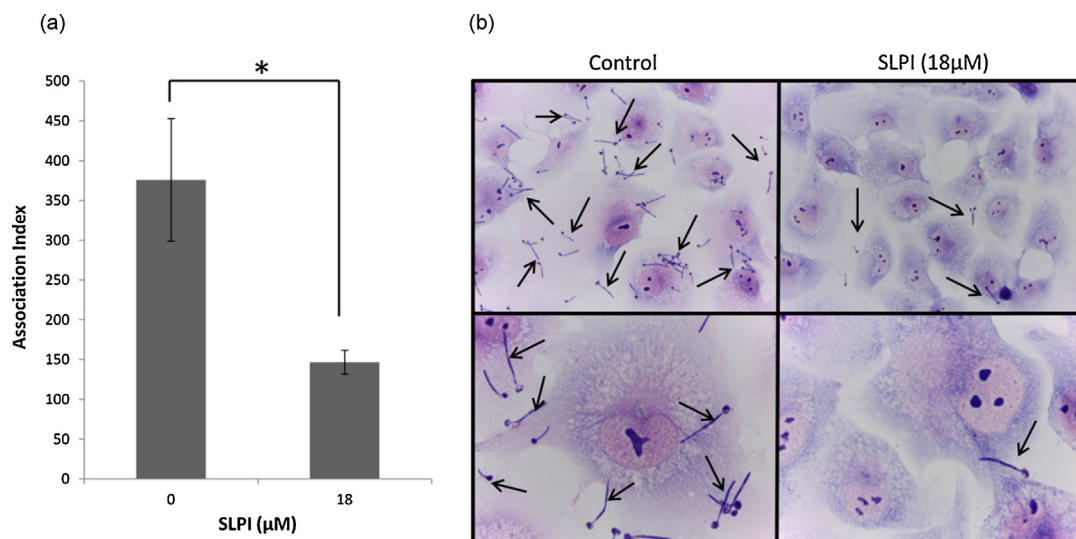


Fig. 4 – Effect of SLPI protein on the interaction between *C. albicans* and epithelial cells. The presence of 18 μ M of SLPI during interaction reduced the adhesion process significantly (a). Representative images (b) are shown, and arrows point to *C. albicans* adhered to epithelial cells in both treated and control fields. Magnification 400 \times and 1000 \times (up and lower boxes, respectively). (*) $p = 0.003$.

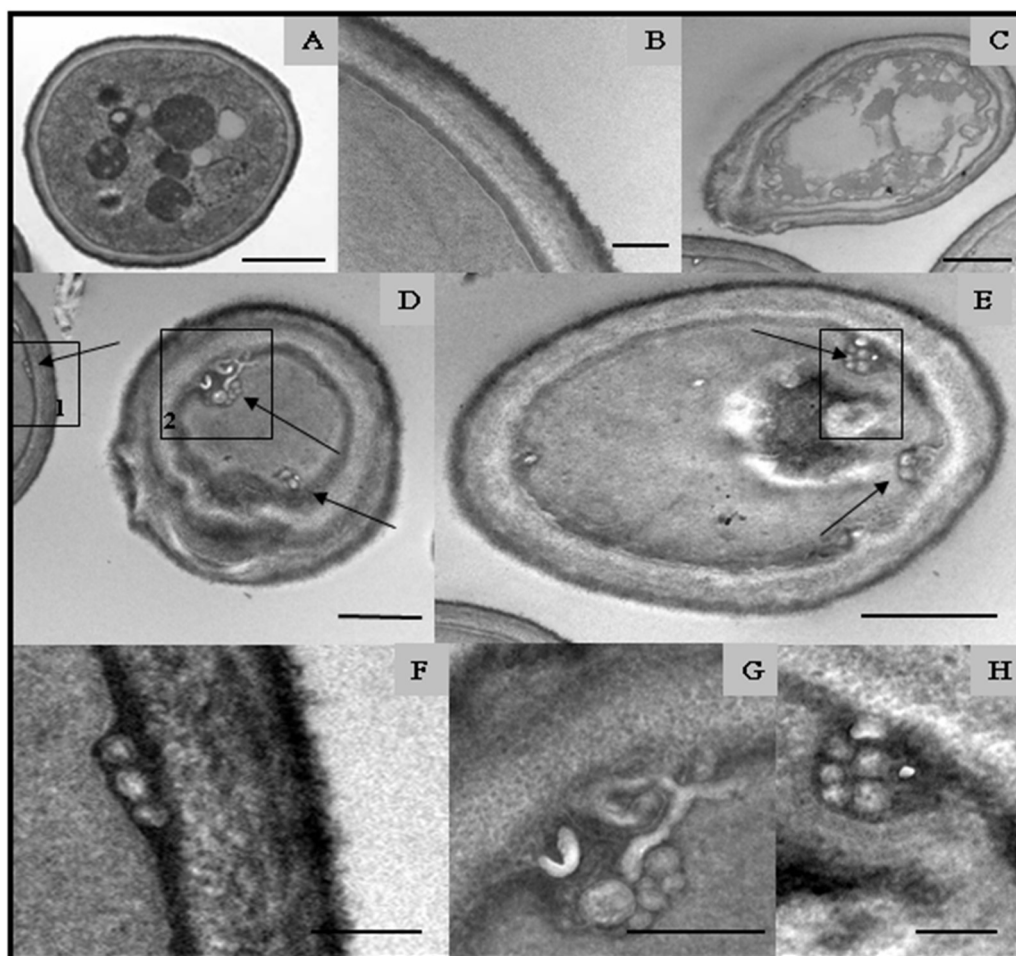


Fig. 5 – Transmission electron microscopy of *C. albicans* untreated cells (A and B) and cells treated with 80 μ M of SLPI (C–H). Control cells show regular contour and electrondense cytoplasm (A) and a fungal cell wall with different layers electrondensities (B). Treated cells present hollow cytoplasm (C–E), and irregular membrane structures along the cytoplasmic membrane (arrows in D and E). The insets 1 and 2 in D correspond to F and G, respectively, and the inset in the E corresponds to H. Bars represent 0.2 μ m (B, F, G and H) and 1.0 μ m (A, C, D and E).

such as phenylmethanesulphonyl fluoride (PMSF) is able to downregulate association indexes to similar levels.¹² Histopathologically, the interaction process between fungal and epithelium can be considered a dynamic process that relies on proper features from the host, such as ageing or immunosuppression, and from the yeast such as hydrophobicity, positive net charge, presence of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMP), and exposing of mannoproteins, among others.⁵⁵

CSH has been considered a non biological factor strongly related to the adhesion of fungal cells to host tissues,^{56–58} and to the yeast resistance to phagocytosis by polymorphonuclear cells.⁵⁹ This feature probably occurs due to the presence of hydrophobic proteins that can promote the binding to extracellular matrix components. But it is also possible that CSH could facilitate specific interactions between receptors and their ligands on the surface of the fungus.⁶⁰ In 2004, Hazen⁵⁹ described for the first time, a hydrophobic surface protein constitutive of *C. albicans* namely CSH1p, which is expressed independently of environmental conditions,

culture or cell morphology. Recently and using a similar methodology, it was reported that sub-inhibitory concentrations of gluconate chlorhexidine were able to reduce *C. albicans* CSH in a dose dependent manner regardless of a patient's characteristics such as diabetic, asthmatic or smoker.⁶¹ However, this study revealed an increase of 11.1% in CSH after treatment with 80 μ M of SLPI. The results obtained by Ellepola and co-workers (2013)⁶¹ could be explained by chlorhexidine pharmacodynamics characteristics, because this compound acts directly on the cell membrane as a cationic detergent, while SLPI may be evolved in other biological processes, such as proteinases inhibition.¹⁹

The surface of *C. albicans* has a variety of PAMPs, such as chitin, glucan, mannoproteins and glycolipids. These structures act as ligands for receptors that specifically recognize these patterns, normally present on the surface of the host cells. This host–fungal interaction exhibits features of a dynamic system, in which the same cell can easily switch between different morphological forms presenting different PAMPs at different moments of time, thereby modulating the

survival and virulence of commensal fungi such as *C. albicans*.^{62–64} *C. albicans* has the ability to mask certain cell wall components and unmask others, qualitatively changing the PAMPs that are exposed to the host. For instance, dectin-1 recognizes β -glucans on fungal cell walls and triggers immune responses by the production of pro and anti-inflammatory cytokines. However, while the yeast form displays β -glucans on its surface, the hyphal form shields its layer of β -glucans underneath a coat of mannoproteins.⁶⁵ On the assumption that *C. albicans* expresses molecules capable of binding to SLPI, flow cytometry analysis was carried out. The results showed that the cells were strongly recognized by the anti-hSLPI, in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting the existence of binding sites for this protein on the surface of *C. albicans*, which can contribute to the construction of alternative models to manage infections caused by this organism by blocking these sites.

Cell wall glycoconjugates have an important role in the interaction between fungus and host cells.⁶⁶ To evaluate the effect of SLPI on the expression of cell surface mannoproteins of *C. albicans*, this study used FITC labelled Concanavalin A due to its ability to bind to mannose residues. The results showed that treatment with 9.0 μ M of SLPI was not enough to change the availability of mannoproteins on the cell wall. However treatment with the maximal physiologic concentration (80 μ M) reduced the binding of concanavalin A to the cell surface by 20%, pointing to a possible reduction in the expression of cell wall mannoproteins or a decreasing in mannose residues available for the connection to the lectin. In fact, con-A has been employed as a viable marker to evaluate the expression of mannans and mannoproteins on the surface of microorganisms.⁶⁷ These structures have a key role not only in maintaining the structural integrity of the cell, but also in the process of adhesion to host cells.^{68,69} Thus, the possible reduction in the expression of mannoproteins in *C. albicans*, as suggested by treatment with 80 μ M of SLPI indicates an important potential on modulating one virulence factor that can impair yeast adhesion to the epithelium. As previously stated, fungal cell walls are complex, dynamic and highly adaptable organelle. *C. albicans* alters the phenotype of its wall by changing mannoproteins and polymer distribution in response to environmental conditions. Hence, some authors have already speculated that the variation in fungal cell wall phenotypes may have important implications for host–pathogen interactions.⁷⁰

The effect of SLPI on the ultrastructure of *C. albicans* was evaluated by TEM. Yeasts treated with 80 μ M of SLPI revealed cytoplasmic deflation, and the presence of disorganized plasmatic membrane like structures on the inner side of the plasma membrane within the cytoplasm compartment. This result suggests that the SLPI protein was able to overcome the cell wall and interact with the cytoplasmic membrane or at least interfere with the synthesis of its components. In fact, a previous study has already reported structural changes in the plasmatic membrane after the treatment of *Cryptococcus neoformans* with inhibitors of the synthesis of ergosterol⁷¹ similar to this study.

In summary, the results obtained in this study point to the possible application of SLPI as a viable alternative in the treatment and management of infections caused by *C. albicans*, since this inhibitor was able to exert an important influence on

the viability and on relevant virulence mechanisms of *C. albicans*. Considering this, the exogenous administration of this protein could perhaps become a viable therapeutic alternative in the future, even for *C. albicans* resistant strains, overcoming toxicity issues, considering its constitutive and physiological features.

Funding

The authors would like to thank CAPES and CNPq (Brazil), and FAPERJ (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil) for the financial support of this research.

Competing interests

None declared.

Ethical approval

Not required.

REFERENCES

1. Pfaller MA, Diekema DJ. Epidemiology of invasive candidiasis: a persistent public health problem. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2007;20:133–63.
2. Karkowska-Kuleta J, Rapala-Kozik M, Kozik A. Fungi pathogenic to humans: molecular bases of virulence of *Candida albicans*, *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *Acta Biochim Pol* 2009;56:211–24.
3. Jahagirdar BN, Morrison VA. Emerging fungal pathogens in patients with haematologic malignancies and marrow/stem cell transplant recipients. *Semin Respir Infect* 2002;17:113–20.
4. Odds FC, Gow NA, Brown AJ. Fungal virulence studies come of age. *Genome Biol* 2001;2:1009.
5. Gulsham K, Moye-Rowley WS. Multidrug resistance in fungi. *Eukaryot Cell* 2007;6:1933–42.
6. Hope WW, Billaud EM, Lestner J, Denning DW. Therapeutic drug monitoring for triazoles. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 2008;21:580–6.
7. Petrikos G, Skiada A. Recent advances in antifungal chemotherapy. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2007;30:107–8.
8. Canuto MM, Rodero FG. Antifungal drug resistance to azole and polyenes. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2002;2:550–63.
9. Odds FC. Should resistance to azole antifungals in vitro be interpreted as predicting clinical non-response? *Drug Resist Updat* 1998;1:11–5.
10. Cutler JE. Putative virulence factors of *Candida albicans*. *Annu Rev Microbiol* 1991;45:187–218.
11. Odds FC. Pathogenesis of *Candida* infections. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1994;31:s2–5.
12. Portela MB, Kneipp LF, Ribeiro de Souza IP, Holandino C, Alviano CS, Meyer-Fernandes JR, et al. Ectophosphatase activity in *Candida albicans* influences fungal adhesion: study between HIV-positive and HIV-negative isolates. *Oral Dis* 2010;16:431–7.
13. Kretschmar M, Hube B, Bertsch T, Sanglard D, Merker R, Schröder M, et al. Germ tubes and proteinase activity contribute to virulence of *Candida albicans* in murine peritonitis. *Infect Immun* 1999;67:6637–42.

14. Naglik JR, Challacombe SJ, Hube B. *Candida albicans* secreted aspartyl proteinases in virulence and pathogenesis. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 2003;67:400–28.
15. Gauwewy K, Borelli C, Kortling HC. Targeting virulence: a new paradigm for antifungals. *Drug Discov Today* 2009;14:214–22.
16. Eisenberg SP, Hale KK, Heimdal P, Thompson RC. Location of protease inhibitory region of secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor. *J Biol Chem* 1990;256:7976–81.
17. Thompson RC, Ohlsson K. Isolation, properties, and complete aminoacid sequence of human secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor, a potent inhibitor of leucocyte elastase. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1986;83:6692–6.
18. Baranger K, Zani ML, Chandenier J, Dallet-Choisy S, Moreau T. The antibacterial and antifungal properties of trappin-2 (pré-elafin) do not depend on its protease inhibitory function. *FEBS J* 2008;275:2008–20.
19. Moreau T, Baranger K, Dadé S, Dallet-Choisy S, Guyot N, Zani ML. Multifaceted roles of human elafin and secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI), two serine protease inhibitors of the chelonianin family. *Biochimie* 2008;90:284–95.
20. Stetler G, Brewer MT, Thompson RC. Isolation and sequence of a human gene encoding a potent inhibitor of leukocyte proteases. *Nucleic Acids Res* 1986;14:7883–96.
21. Dietze SC, Sommerhoff CP, Fritz H. Inhibition of histamine release from human mast cells ex vivo by natural and synthetic chymase inhibitors. *Biol Chem Hoppe-Seyler* 1990;371(Suppl.):75–9.
22. Franken C, Meijer CJLM, Dijkman JH. Tissue distribution of antileukoprotease and lysozyme in humans. *J Histochem Cytochem* 1989;37:493–8.
23. Shugars DC, Watkins CA, Cowen HJ. Salivary concentration of secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor, an antimicrobial protein, is decreased with advanced age. *Gerontology* 2001;47:246–53.
24. Tjabringa GS, Vos JB, Olthuis D, Ninaber DK, Rabe KF, Schalkwijk J, et al. Host defense effector molecules in mucosal secretions. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* 2005;45:151–8.
25. Nittayananta W, Kemapunmanus M, Yangngam S, Talungchit S, Sriplung H. Expression of oral secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor in HIV-infected subjects with long-term use of antiretroviral therapy. *Oral Pathol Med* 2013;42:208–15.
26. Shugars DC. Endogenous mucosal antiviral factors of oral cavity. *J Infect Dis* 1999;179:S431–5.
27. Ashcroft GS, Lei K, Jin W, Longenecker G, Kulkarni AB, Greenwell-Wild T, et al. Secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor mediates non-redundant functions necessary for normal wound healing. *Nat Med* 2000;10:1147–53.
28. Zhu J, Nathan C, Jin W, Sim D, Ashcroft GS, Wahl SM, et al. Conversion of proepithelin to epithelins: roles of SLPI and elastase in host defense and wound repair. *Cell* 2002;111:867–78.
29. Moutsopoulos NM, Greenwell-Wild T, Wahl SM. Differential mucosal susceptibility in HIV-1 transmission and infection. *Adv Dent Res* 2006;19:52–6.
30. Moutsopoulos NM, Nares S, Nikitakis N, Rangel Z, Wen J, Munson P, et al. Tonsil epithelial factors may influence oropharyngeal human immunodeficiency virus transmission. *Am J Pathol* 2007;171:571–9.
31. Tomee JF, Hiemstra PS, Heinzl-Wieland R, Kauffman HF. Antileukoprotease: an endogenous protein in the innate mucosal defense against fungi. *J Infect Dis* 1997;176:740–7.
32. Nishimura J, Saiga H, Sato S, Okuyama M, Kayama H, Kuwata H, et al. Potent antimycobacterial activity of mouse secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor. *J Immunol* 2008;180:4032–9.
33. Diz Dios P, Ocampo A, Miralles C, Otero I, Iglesias I, Rayo N, et al. Frequency of oropharyngeal candidiasis in HIV-infected patients on protease inhibitor therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 1999;87:437–41.
34. Melo NR, Taguchi H, Jorge J, Pedro RJ, Almeida OP, Fukushima K, et al. Oral *Candida* flora from Brazilian human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients in the highly active antiretroviral therapy era. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 2004;99:425–31.
35. Costa CR, Cohen AJ, Fernandes OF, Miranda KC, Passos XS, Souza LK, et al. Asymptomatic oral carriage of *Candida* species in HIV-infected patients in the highly active antiretroviral therapy era. *Rev Inst Med Trop* 2006;48:257–61.
36. Cerqueira DF, Portela MB, Pomarico L, de Araújo Soares RM, de Souza IP, Castro GF. Oral *Candida* colonization and its relation with predisposing factors in HIV-infected children and their uninfected siblings in Brazil: the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *J Oral Pathol Med* 2010;39:188–94.
37. Hay RJ. The management of superficial candidiasis. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1999;40:S35–42.
38. Gürcüoğlu E, Ener B, Akalin H, Sinirtaş M, Evci C, Akçağlar S, et al. Epidemiology of nosocomial candidaemia in a university hospital: a 12-year study. *Epidemiol Infect* 2010;138:1328–35.
39. Braga-Silva LA, dos Santos AL, Portela MB, Souto-Padrón T, de Araújo Soares RM. Effect of Suramin on the human pathogen *Candida albicans*: implications on the fungal development and virulence. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* 2007;51:399–406.
40. Garcia-Gomes AS, Curvelo JA, Soares RM, Ferreira-Pereira. et al. Curcumin acts synergistically with fluconazole to sensitize a clinical isolate of *Candida albicans* showing a MDR phenotype. *Med Mycol* 2012;50:26–32.
41. Kamboj RC, Pal S, Raghav N, Singh H. A selective colorimetric assay for cathepsin L using Z-Phe-Arg-4-methoxy-beta-naphthylamide. *Biochimie* 1993;75:873–8.
42. Hazen KC, Hazen BW. A polystyrene microsphere assay for detecting surface hydrophobicity variations within *Candida albicans* populations. *J Microbiol Methods* 1987;6:289–99.
43. Willocks L, Leen CL, Brettell RP, Urquhart D, Russell TB, Milne LJ, et al. Fluconazole resistance in AIDS patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 1991;28:937–9.
44. NCCLS. *Método de Referência para Testes de Diluição em Caldo para a Determinação da Sensibilidade a Terapia Antifúngica das Leveduras; Norma Aprovada—Segunda Edição*. NCCLS document M27-A2. 940 West Valley Road, Suite 1400, Wayne, Pennsylvania 19087-1898 Estados Unidos: NCCLS; 2002, ISBN: 1-56238-469-4.
45. Tomee JF, Koëter GH, Hiemstra PS, Kauffman HF, et al. Secretory leukoprotease inhibitor: a native antimicrobial protein presenting a new therapeutic option? *Thorax* 1998;53:114–6.
46. McElvaney NG, Nakamura H, Birrer P, Hébert CA, Wong WL, Alphonso M, et al. Modulation of airway inflammation in cystic fibrosis. *J Clin Invest* 1992;90:1296–301.
47. Gregori C. *Cirurgia buco-dento-alveolar: Suporte medicamentoso em cirurgia buco dento alveolar*. 3rd ed. São Paulo: Sarvier; 1996.
48. Newport G, Kuo A, Flattery A, Gill C, Blake JJ, Kurtz MB, et al. Inactivation of Kex2p diminishes the virulence of *Candida albicans*. *J Biol Chem* 2003;278:1713–20.
49. Hube B. Possible role of secreted proteinases in *Candida albicans* infections. *Rev Iberoam Micol* 1998;15:65–8.
50. Rodrigues ML, dos Reis FC, Puccia R, Travassos LR, Alviano CS, et al. Cleavage of human fibronectin and other basement membrane-associated proteins by a *Cryptococcus neoformans* serine proteinase. *Microb Pathog* 2003;34:65–71.
51. Casadevall A, Pirofski L. Host–pathogen interactions: the attributes of virulence. *J Infect Dis* 2001;184:337–44.

52. Ruiz-Herrera J, Elorza MV, Valentín E, Sentandreu R, et al. Molecular organization of the cell wall of *Candida albicans* and its relation to pathogenicity. *FEMS Yeast Res* 2006;6:14–29.
53. Zhu J, Nathan C, Jin W, et al. Conversion of proepithelin to epithelins: roles of SLPI and elastase in host defense and wound repair. *Cell* 2002;111:867–78.
54. Sun JN, Solis NV, Phan QT, Bajwa JS, Kashleva H, Thompson A, et al. Host cell invasion and virulence mediated by *Candida albicans* Ssa1. *PLoS Pathog* 2010;11:6.
55. Zakikhany K, Naglik JR, Schmidt-Westhausen A, Holland G, Schaller M, Hube B, et al. In vivo transcript profiling of *Candida albicans* identifies a gene essential for interepithelial dissemination. *Cell Microbiol* 2007;9:2938–54.
56. Hazen KC, Hazen B. Dynamic expression of cell surface hydrophobicity during initial yeast cell growth and before germ tube formation of *Candida albicans*. *Infect Immun* 1998;56:2521–5.
57. Imbert C, Rodier MH, Daniault G, Jacquemin JL. Influence of sub-inhibitory concentrations of conventional antifungals on metabolism of *Candida albicans* and on its adherence to polystyrene and extracellular matrix proteins. *Med Mycol* 2002;40:123–9.
58. Blanco MT, Sacristán B, Bateta A, Fernández-Calderón MC, Hurtado C, Pérez-Giraldo C, et al. Cellular surface hydrophobicity as an additional phenotypic criterion applied to differentiate strains of *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis*. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 2008;60:129–31.
59. Hazen KC. Relationship between expression of cell surface hydrophobicity protein 1 (CSH1p) and surface hydrophobicity properties of *Candida dubliniensis*. *Curr Microbiol* 2004;48:447–51.
60. Singleton DR, Masuoka J, Hazen KC. Cloning and analysis of a *Candida albicans* gene that affects cell surface hydrophobicity. *J Bacteriol* 2001;183:3582–8.
61. Ellepola AN, Joseph BK, Khan ZU. Changes in germ tube formation and cell-surface hydrophobicity of oral *Candida dubliniensis* isolates following brief exposure to sub-cidal concentrations of polyene and azole antifungal agents. *Mycoses* 2013;56:463–70.
62. Cottier F, Pavelka N. Complexity and dynamics of host–fungal interactions. *Immunol Res* 2012;53:127–35.
63. Villar CC, Dongari-Bagtzoglou A. Immune defence mechanisms and immunoenhancement strategies in oropharyngeal candidiasis. *Expert Rev Mol Med* 2008;13:29.
64. Netea MG, Brown GD, Kullberg BJ, Gow NA, et al. An integrated model of the recognition of *Candida albicans* by the innate immune system. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2008;6:67–78.
65. Taylor PR, Tsoni SV, Willment JA, Dennehy KM, Rosas M, Findon H, et al. Dectin-1 is required for beta-glucan recognition and control of fungal infection. *Nat Immunol* 2007;8:31–8.
66. Pietrella D, Bistoni G, Corbucci C, Perito S, Vecchiarelli A, et al. *Candida albicans* mannoprotein influences the biological function of dendritic cells. *Cell Microbiol* 2006;8:602–12.
67. d'Avila-Levy CM, Araújo FM, Vermelho AB, Branquinha MH, Alviano CS, Soares RM, et al. Differential lectin recognition of glycoproteins in choanomastigote-shaped trypanosomatids: taxonomic implications. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 2004;231:171–6.
68. Warolin J, Essmann M, Larsen B. Flow cytometry of *Candida albicans* for investigations of surface marker expression and phagocytosis. *Ann Clin Lab Sci* 2005;35:302–11.
69. Chaffin WLJ. *Candida albicans* cell wall proteins. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 2008;72:495–544.
70. Kruppa M, Greene RR, Noss I, Lowman DW, Williams DL. *C. albicans* increases cell wall mannoprotein, but not mannan, in response to blood, serum and cultivation at physiological temperature. *Glycobiology* 2011;21:1173–80.
71. Guerra CR, Ishida K, Nucci M, Rozental S. Terbinafine inhibits *Cryptococcus neoformans* growth and modulates fungal morphology. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 2012;107:582–90.